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From the Patent Office Report.

A GENERAL VIEW OF AMERICAN AGRICULTURE.

CHAPTER III.

AGRICULTURAL METEOROLOGY.

There are few sciences the study of which is more useful to the farmer than that of Meteorology. A soil may contain all the atoms required to form a luxuriant crop, yet, if the temperature of the ground, or of the air above it, be too low, vegetation makes no progress. Again, the earth and atmosphere may have a due degree of warmth and light, as well as abound with the food of plants in an available form, except *water*, and the absence of this element will be fatal to the hopes of the husbandman.

Atmospheric air, light, heat, electricity, rain, dew, snow, and frost, exert a controlling influence over the growth of all cultivated plants. A knowledge of the natural laws by which these generally invisible and imponderable bodies are governed, so far as researches have revealed them, is most valuable and interesting.—The atmosphere and the numerous phenomena of which it is the theatre, should command more attention in this country than they hitherto have received, if we intend to keep pace with the progress of physical science in Europe. To encourage the study of meteorology in its application to agriculture is the object of this chapter.

THE ATMOSPHERE is mainly composed of two distinct gases, which are invisible but not imponderable bodies, and every where surround the planet like an ocean. It has a mean depth of some forty-five miles. The gases which form the air are called *nitrogen* and *oxygen*. According to the accurate analysis of dry, pure air, made by M. M. Dumas and Boussingault, 100 parts consist of 20.8 oxygen and 79.2 nitrogen. These chemists found from 2 to 5 parts of carbonic acid in 1,000 of atmospheric air. Dr. Ehrenius has ascertained that the proportion of ammonia in the atmosphere is as 1 to 2,000,000, varying from 1 to 3,000,000. Undoubtedly there are many other volatile and gaseous bodies in the atmosphere, in a state extremely diluted and diffused as to escape all chemical tests. Sir Robert Kane found that sulphuretted hydrogen will pass through a thin tube of India rubber into the atmosphere, against a pressure equal to 50 times the weight of common air.—Various compounds of phosphorus, arsenic, and sulphur, are constantly discharged from decaying animal and vegetable substances into the atmosphere. These gases fall to the earth again in rain-water. It is one of the laws peculiar to all gases, that the presence of one in any given space does not in the least prevent several others from occupying the vacancies left between atoms of gas that seem to repel each other with singular precision. The facility with which the atmosphere takes up vapor when water evaporates, is familiar to all.

The capacity to hold immense quantities of water imbibed from the ocean, lakes, rivers, the foliage of trees, and moist earth in a volatile condition, to be distributed over broad continents, is a wonderful provision of nature. But the filling of the air with water, like a wet sponge, is less remarkable than the contrivance for *squeezing the sponge*, so to speak, and causing the diffused moisture to fall in gentle rains, snows, and dews.—The *drying* of the atmosphere, after it is saturated with water, is a phenomenon, without which it would never rain; nor could there be any springs, rivers, land plants, or animals on the globe. This precipitation of water is effected by a change of temperature, which change is the result of the revolution of the earth on its axis, and of solar heat. Day and Night, Spring Summer, Autumn, and Winter, with with their ever-varying temperature, varying winds, and clouds, and constantly changing humidity, are all results of fixed laws, which invith the research of every reasoning mind.

SOLAR HEAT.—According to Professor Forbes, the rays of heat coming from the sun, and passing through the atmosphere in the shortest line, at the latitude of Paris, lose 25 per cent. of their calorific power by the time they reach the earth. Rays that strike the atmosphere at an angle of only 25 deg. part with half their intensity, or heat, by the time they touch the ground. The molecules of air absorb and radiate heat into space, the same as other ponderable bodies. Hence, no matter how clear the atmosphere, neither the rising nor the setting sun imparts so much light or heat to those parts of the earth so affected as they receive when the sun is at the meridian. The effect of solar rays on the earth is still further diminished morning and evening, by the fact that fewer fall on any given area, because they impinge upon its surface obliquely. One can look at the setting sun with impunity, not because it emits less heat or light at that time, but because the rays are mostly absorbed and radiated in passing through many miles of atmosphere before they reach the eye of the observer.

The facility with which solar heat penetrates and warms the soil, to the depth of 6, 12, 18, and 24, inches, and the radiation of heat from the earth, the leaves of plants, and all other substances, deserve particular notice.

A distinction must be made between the radiation of heat from the surface of any body, and the transmission of it through any substance, as iron, wood, water, mold or soil. All these hold different relations to this peculiar element. It is not intended to take more than a popular view of this subject. At the time of seeding in spring a single day is sufficient to warm to the depth of 4 inches, a mellow soil recently ploughed. Two days of sun will warm the ground 6 inches; and six days 12 inches.—The fall of warm rain on a well drained, mellow soil, greatly hastens the heating of the earth. On the contrary, the fall of a cold rain, or much cold water in the ground, greatly retards the rise of temperature in tilled land. Heat and water should be studied together, if one would obtain a clear idea of their joint influence on vegetation. When water evaporates it expands to 1,696 times its former volume, and renders latent, or insensible, a considerable amount of active heat. Hence, a wet piece of ground, from the surface of which a good deal of water evaporates, is always cooled by the constant loss of sensible heat which rises in vapor and departs far into the atmosphere.

The warmer the atmosphere, the greater is its capacity to hold water in the condition of a diffused invisible vapor. The lower strata of air are heated much more by caloric radiated from the earth than by the absorbtion of heat from the sun in its passage to the plane. Air thus heated becomes expanded or rarified, and specifically lighter than the colder air above it. This causes the air within and near the tropics to rise high above the surface of the earth, and flow over both north and south, toward either pole; while colder and heavier air rushes in toward the equator to fill the empty space. These ærial currents are deflected in their courses by the diurnal revolution of the earth, and by mountain ranges whose summits are often covered with eternal snow; and they are still further modified by the varying temperature of the ocean and its peculiar streams.

Heat and water are the fruitful parents of winds and clouds. When aqueous vapor is precipitated in rain or snow, heat that was latent becomes again sensible, and by increasing the capacity of the air to hold water in the form of vapor, prevents a disastrous deluge of this abundant element in nature. The laws which restrain the precipitation of water from the clouds are no less curious than those which cause it to rain at all. The atmosphere must approach saturation before it can rain; and it usually happens that the quantities which will fall on a given area, one hundred feet above the ground, and on the earth are unequal. Large drops, in falling through many feet of dry air, become smaller by constant evaporation, and may be wholly dissipated before they reach the earth. On the other hand, quite small drops formed in cold regions, high in the air, constantly condense more vapor in falling through a saturated atmosphere, and will be many times larger when they reach the ground than at their starting point.

To illustrate the productions of rain let us suppose that a current of air at 70 deg. temperature, saturated with moisture, meets and mingles with another current, also saturated, but having a heat of 50 deg. Now, if the atmosphere at the mean temperature of 60 deg. had a capacity to hold water as an invisible vapor, equal to the mean of 70 deg. and 50 deg. it is obvious that no precipitation would take place. But such is not the fact. The quantity of water held in air heated from 60 deg. to 70 deg. cannot be contained in that heated from 50 deg. to 60 deg. In other words, whatever cools air saturated with moisture, causes a cloud, dew, mist, or rain.

Early and late frosts are produced by the radiation of heat during clear nights from the foliage of plants, and other terrestrial bodies. If the temperature of the air is not very low at sundown, and is humid, vegetation will so soon reach the *dew-point*, that the latent heat, evolved by the formation of much dew, will prevent a frost. If the atmosphere is dry, clear, and still, the dew-point is lower, and all the circumstances are favorable to freeze the little vapor condensed on such substances as radiate heat with the greatest facility. Any thing which checks the radiation of heat like a cloud, smoke-screen, or wind which agitates the atmosphere, serves to prevent frost. Every farmer should have a thermometer and rain-gauge, and know the degree of heat most favorable to all his crops. The dew temperature and moisture of the soil are as much elements of production and profit, as good manure and skillful tillage. The writer has studied the growth of corn in different months noting the changes from 4 o'clock, a. m. to m.; from noon to 8 p. m.; and from 8 p. m. to 4 a. m. When the temperature is favorable, corn grows as much per hour in the night as in the daytime. No agriculturist is so far advanced in the science of climatology, as to make all that can be made of the water, solar light and heat, which nature so bountifully supplies. There is no State in the Union where the mean temperature of summer is too low to ripen maize, or corn as is the case in England, Scotland, and Ireland. The cutting down of of too much timber in some parts of the country has operated to change, in some degree, the climate, and render large districts more subject to alternate droughts and rainy seasons. In summer, when frequent and moderate rains are greatly needed, the air is too dry to yield much more than respectable dews, for many weeks in succession.

To learn the well authenticated results of cleaning forests, in drying up natural springs, and changing climates regularity of rains, &c., the reader is referred to the writings of Humboldt, Kæmtz, Forbes, Boussingault, and other meteorologists. Humboldt remarks: "In felling trees which cover the crowns and slopes of mountains men in all climates seem to be bringing on future generations two calamities at once—a want of fuel and a scarcity of water.—(Humboldt vol. v. page 173.) The waste of valuable timber in the United States, to say nothing of firewood, will hardly begin to be appreciated until our population reaches fifty millions. Then the folly and shortsightedness of this age will meet with a degree of censure and reproach, not pleasant to contemplate.

Different plants require unlike degrees of heat and light to bring them to maturity. The potatoe will produce an edible tuber at a mean temperature so slow that neither its own seeds nor those of any cereal can be formed.—Boussingault found them cultivated in South America at an elevation having a mean heat so low as 42 deg., requiring eleven months in which to grow, or 335 days between the planting and digging. In many parts of this country persons begin to dig potatoes in seventy days from the planting; and potatoes planted the 1st of May will be ripe by the 1st of August. In some of the southern States they grow best in the the winter season. Winter barley and rye will mature their seed at a lower temperature than wheat. Humboldt found at Jakoustk, in high Central Asia, where the earth was constantly frozen at the depth of three feet below the surface, both rye and wheat yielding a return sometimes of 15 to 1 of seed. At that place the mercury is frozen two months in the year—the cold being over 72 deg. below freezing. Short as the summers are, they have a mean temperature of 64 deg.

On the northern slope of Monte Rosa, in Switzerland, barley ceases to grow at an elevation of 4,200 feet above the sea; on the southern side it continues to be cultivated at the height of about 6,560 feet. Boussingault says that the difference is ascribed to local causes.

In studying the mean temperature and annual fall of rain, including snow and dew, in the united States, and the distribution of both heat and water through the year, one can hardly escape the conviction that no other equal area on the globe has equal agricultural capabilities. Without including Delaware, there are within a fraction of 660,000,000, acres in the southern States. On two-thirds of this vast surface, wheat is harvested early enough in May and June to permit a crop of corn to mature on the same land before autumns frost.—By drawing a line from the Atlantic due west to the Rio Grande, so as to have 500,000,000 acres south of it, on every arable acre two crops of our most valuable breadstuffs can be harvested in a year. Allow one-third of this area for forests, the beds of rivers, and irreclaimable surface, and there are left 200,000,000 acres for cultivation. On the supposition that the south had a population adequate to demand such crops, 100,000,000 acres might be drilled with seed-wheat in November after corn harvest, putting half the needful fertilizers in with the seed, and sowing the balance broadcast in February, or March, after the English and Belgian practice.

With skillful culture and feeding, an average return of 20 bushels per acre may reasonably be expected, producing an aggregate crop of 2,000,000,000 of bushels. This crop would be harvested between the 15th May and 15th of June, after which a crop of corn may be grown. With a dense population, as in Belgium, Fronce, and many parts of China, there can never be a real lack of fertilizers, so that 60 bushels of corn can be produced on every acre of arable surface in our thirty States. By this estimate it is seen that the same land which had produced 2,000,000,000 bushels of wheat, might, so far as the climate is concerned, easily yield 6,000,000,000 bushels of corn in season to seed with wheat again.

Governor Hammond, of South Carolina, estimates the present capacity of the slaveholding States as equal to the support of 200,000,000,000 of inhabitants. To give Virginia as dense a population as Belgium has, (which exports far more of human food than Virginia does,) would require all the people now in the United States to reside in the "Ancient Dominion."

Of the other 100,000,000 acres of arable soil, one-half may be planted in cotton, and enriched no more than to give an average of a bale of 400 lbs. to the acre. This will secure an annual crop twenty times larger than is now grown in the United States, and fifteen times larger than the consumption of the whole human family. There will still remain 50,000,000 acres adapted to the culture of sugar-cane, rice, tobacco, and other important staples.

The United States possess a territory embracing over 2,000 millions of acres, more than a moiety of which is susceptible of tillage. Taken as a whole, the country has a climate whose mean temperature and fall of rain greatly favor the production of human food and clothing.

As we are now engaged in laying the foundations of an empire such as the world has never seen, nor scarcely conceived possible, every advantage of soil, climate, natural product and such valuable trees for timber, fruit and fuel, as may be profitably cultivated, should command universal care and study.

CONFESSION OF PROF. JOHN W. WEBSTER.

Proceedings before the Governor and Council.

STATEMENT OF REV. DR. GEORGE PUTNAM.

The Committee on Pardons, of the Governor and Council, met at the Council chamber in the State House, on Thursday forenoon, July 2, for the purpose of considering the case of Prof. John W. Webster, now lying in Boston jail under sentence of death for the murder of Dr. George Parkman, on the afternoon of Nov. 29, 1849.

A petition for remission of sentence, and full pardon on the ground of entire innocence, had been put into the hands of the Executive by Dr. Webster's friends—subsequently withdrawn by the advice of Rev. Mr. Putnam. This petition was drawn up the most part of it by friends of the Professor's family, who until last week did not entertain the slightest doubt of the complete and perfect freedom from guilt of the father, husband, and friend. The statement which was made to them at that time in the most decisive manner, swept away from their trembling hopes, the last refuge. The communication thus made, was a severer trial, if possible, than any in all which they have been called to pass through, in this dreadful history, and made so deep an impression upon them, that the revelator of the tragedy declares "it is the most distressed family in the world."

Dr. Putnam, of Roxbury, the chosen spiritual adviser and guide of the prisoner, was the only individual who appeared in behalf of Professor Webster. Without any preliminary remarks he proceeded to read a new petition which was drawn up and signed by the prisoner, which is as follows:—

PETITION OF DR. WEBSTER:

To his Excellency the Governor and to the Honorable Executive Council of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts:—

John White Webster, a convict, under sentence of death in Boston jail, in behalf of himself and of his wife and his children, respectfully petitions that the sentence awarded against him by the law may be commuted to such other less horrible and ignominious punishment as your honorable body may mercifully decree.

Your petitioner fully admits that he was tried before a fair and impartial tribunal, and that under the law as it exists, the jury, composed as it was of honorable and high minded men, could have returned no verdict other than they did. But he respectfully reminds your honorable body, that the two great moral ingredients of the crime of murder, malice and premeditation, have never been found against him by a jury, but have been necessarily inferred by the arbitrary rules of the law, from certain general facts which your petitioner will not deny, but the extenuating details of which, no man in your petitioner's situation, can ever possess legal evidence to prove. These details your petitioner has confided to a friend who presents his petition, with authority to state them to your honorable body in the hope that you will find therein, reason to extend to your petitioner and his family, that mercy of which the law has made you the dispensers.

And your petitioner will ever pray.

J. W. WEBSTER.

Boston, June, 1850.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

The grounds which I am authorized to take in aid of the petition of J. W. Webster, and which I take not as an advocate pledged to a side, but in good faith, as expressing my own personal belief, are as follows:

That the human remains found in the medical college in November last were those of the late Dr. George Parkman, and that he came to his death by the hands of Dr. Webster, in a moment of passion under great provocation; that there was no premeditation, nor murderous intent; that there was a homicide but not a murder,—or if it could be called a murder under the rigid interpretation of the rules of common law prevailing in this commonwealth,—yet that it was not murder according to the moral judgments of our people or of mankind,—not the crime to which the public sense of justice awards the punishment of death, or for which that punishment is inflicted under the usual and actual administration of the law in Massachusetts.

I am enabled to present from Dr. Webster's own lips a statement of the facts connected with the homicide. The credibility and value of this statement must depend partly on the date of it, and the circumstances under which it was made. Before reading it, therefore, I will relate those circumstances to the committee.

My acquaintance with Dr. Webster before his trial had been of the slightest and most casual kind. Soon after his sentence, I received from him a request that I would visit him as a clergyman, during his imprisonment. It was a service not to be declined.

I had followed the reports of the trial, and acquiesced in the verdict as a righteous one, and had no thought but that the sentence was to be, and ought to be carried into execution. I did not make it my object to draw a confession from him early, or to lead him to commit himself one way or the other, on the question of his guilt or innocence. I carefully avoided every remark and inquiry that might tempt him to make any false declaration. He seemed to understand me, and neither denied nor declared his guilt. I expected he would finally be induced to communicate to me whatever he knew about the disappearance of Dr. Parkman, and about the remains found at the college. But I was in no hurry about this. I thought I should be more likely to obtain from him the exact truth, by waiting till a favorable time. Accordingly it was my object for the first weeks to become acquainted with him, to win his confidence and attachment, by attention and sympathy, and to endeavor to make those impressions of a moral and religious nature, which were suited to his situation as a more or less sinful and certainly dying man. As time passed, I seemed to myself to have succeeded in these objects, almost beyond my hopes.

At length, on the 23d day of May, I had made up my mind to address him in a wholly new strain, and to demand of him a full statement of facts. I then believed myself to be on such terms with him, that I could abruptly and authoritatively demand his confidence. I did so and I was not disappointed in the result. On entering his cell, that day, I told him that I was going to broach a new and important subject to him, and he must listen to me seriously, and not reply till I had done. I then said to him, that he must have felt all along that there was one barrier to our free communication; one point on which we did not understand one another; that the embarrassment which attended the avoiding of that point obviously went far to defeat the satisfaction and profit to himself which ought to result from our interviews. I said that he must certainly have some knowledge respecting the fate of Dr. Parkman, which I had not, and that the unshared secret must be to him an oppressive and intolerable burden; that the time had come when he ought to share it with some one, and under the circumstances with me; that I had scrupulously forborne hitherto to press him on this point, and urged it now only because I believed it would be for his relief and peace of mind; that I thought he must feel by this time that he owed me the truth, and that he could trust me; that he need not fear to tell me the whole truth for I was not there to reproach him, nor to judge him, but to comfort him in his distress, and to help him in making peace with God and his conscience, and to assist him, if I might, to live while he lived, and die when he should die, with the humility of a sinner and the firmness of a man, and I trusted, the hope of a Christian; that in order to my being of any real service to him, there must be truth and true relations between us. I cautioned him not to answer me hastily, not to speak until he was prepared to tell the whole and absolute truth—that I would endeavor to put a favorable construction upon his silence; that I was in no hurry, and that he might take a day or two more to consider whether my advice to him to make a full disclosure was not reasonable and good.

I spoke to him some time in a strain which I have thus indicated. He seemed to me much affected by what I said, and when I paused, he said immediately, "I am ready to tell you all. It will be a relief to me." He then proceeded to relate the facts which I have since embodied in the statement now to be presented, and put to him a great number of questions, all of which he answered promptly, and with every appearance it seemed to me of an honest purpose to tell the truth. Some of the minor facts and explanations were given by him on a subsequent day, but the outline of the whole narrative, and the more important details were given at the interview of May 23d.

It is important to observe that at that date the writ of error was pending, and also that Dr. Webster's petition for a full pardon, with strong declarations of entire innocence, was in the hands of the Governor. If the writ should fail, he considered everything as staked upon that petition, the declarations it contained and the document and affidavits he believed would be obtained for its support. His immediate family firmly and sincerely believing him entirely innocent, were engaged in seeking facts and papers to sustain his petition. I am confident that at that time he had not the remotest idea of approaching the Executive in any other way than according to the tenor of that petition, nor began to contemplate the question, whether commutation would be practicable or even a desirable alternative. His whole thought, so far as he entertained any hope, was of pardon on the ground of innocence. Once in the course of his narrative, he suddenly paused and said, with an appearance of anxiety, 'What if the writ should be granted, and a new trial follow, might not you be summoned as a witness and compelled to reveal all I have said to you?' I told him, No; that the government would not put me into his cell as a confidential friend and then try to use me as a spy; that it would be an outrage not to be thought of, and that I would not consent to be so used, whatever might be the consequences to myself. I had previously told him that I should never reveal his statement to any one while he lived, without his consent, and that if I survived him he must leave all to my discretion. I feel sure that it had not occurred to his mind, that his statements to me could ever be used by me with a view to his advantage, but he had a moment's solicitude lest I might be compelled to reveal them to his harm. He seemed to me to make his disclosures simply because he was unwilling to deny my earnest request, wished to manifest his confidence in me, and at the same time was glad to have the opportunity of relieving his mind of its dreadful secret.

I will add here that I did not make my demand of Dr. Webster at the suggestion of any legal or other friend of his, nor did any person know of my intention to make it. And neither Dr. W.'s statement, nor the fact that he had made any, was communicated to me by any person until more than two weeks after it had been received by me. Since that time no steps have been taken by me without the concurrence of Dr. Webster and of his recognized legal advisor.

Two or three days after I received Dr. Webster's statement, I advised the withdrawal, (temporary at least, and I hoped final,) of his first petition to the Executive, and it was withdrawn.

DR. WEBSTER'S STATEMENT, AS REPORTED TO THE COMMITTEE OF THE COUNCIL BY G. PUTNAM.

On Tuesday, the 20th of November, I sent the note to Dr. Parkman, which, it appears was carried by the boy Maxwell. I handed it to Littlefield unsealed. It was to ask Dr. Parkman to call at my rooms on Friday, the 23d, after my lecture. He had become of late very importunate for his pay. He had threatened me with a suit, to put an officer into my house, and to drive me from my professorship if I did not pay him. The purport of my note was simply to ask the conference. I did not tell him in it what I could do or what I had to say about the payment. I wished to gain for those few days a release from his solicitations, to which I was liable every day, on occasions and in a manner very disagreeable and alarming to me, and also to avert, for so long a time at least, the fulfilment of recent threats of severe measures. I did not expect to be able to pay him when Friday should arrive. My purpose was, if he should accede to the proposed interview, to state to him my embarrassments and utter inability to pay him at present, to apologize for those things in my conduct which had offended him, to throw myself upon his mercy, to beg for further time and indulgence for the sake of my family, if not for my own, and to make as good promises to him as I could have any hope of keeping.

I did not hear from him on that day, nor the next (Wednesday), but I found that on Thursday he had been abroad in pursuit of me, though without finding me. I feared that he had forgotten the appointment, or else did not mean to wait for it. I feared that he would come in upon me at my lecture hour, or while I was preparing my experiments for it. Therefore I called at his house on that morning (Friday) between eight and nine, to remind him of my wish to see him at the college at half-past one—my lecture closing at one. I did not stop to talk with him then, for I expected the conversation would be a long one, and I had my lecture to prepare for. It was necessary for me to save my time, and also to keep my mind free from other exciting matters. Dr. Parkman agreed to call on me as I proposed.

He came, accordingly, between half-past one and two. He came in at the lecture room door. I was engaged in removing some glasses from my lecture room table into the room in the rear, called the upper laboratory. He came rapidly down the steps and followed me into the laboratory. He immediately addressed me with great energy, "Are you ready for me, sir? have you got the money?" I replied, "No, Dr. Parkman," and was then beginning to state my condition and make my appeal to him. He would not listen to me, but interrupted me with much vehemence. He called me "a scoundrel," and "a liar," and went on, heaping on me the most bitter taunts and opprobrious epithets. While he was talking, he drew a handful of papers from his pocket, and took from among them my two notes and also an old letter from Dr. Hosack, written many years ago, and congratulating him (Dr. P.) on his success in getting me appointed professor of chemistry. "You see," he said, "I got you into your office, and now I will get you out of it." He put back into his pocket all the papers except the letter and the notes. I cannot tell how long the torrent of threats and invective continued, and I can now call to memory but a small portion of what he said. At first I kept interposing, trying to pacify him, so that I might obtain the object for which I sought the interview. But I could not stop him, and soon my own temper was up. I forgot everything. I was excited to the highest degree of passion; and while he was speaking and gesticulating in the most violent and menacing manner, thrusting the letter and his fist into my face, in my fury I seized whatever thing was handiest. It was a stick of wood—and dealt him an instantaneous blow, with all the force that passion could give it. I did not know, nor think, nor care, where I should hit him; nor how hard, nor what the effect would be. It was on the side of his head, and there was nothing to break the force of the blow. He fell instantly upon the pavement. There was no second blow. He did not move.—I stooped over him, and he seemed to be lifeless. Blood flowed from his mouth, and I got a sponge and wiped it away. I got some ammonia and applied it to his nose, but without effect. Perhaps I spent ten minutes in attempts to resuscitate him; but I found that he was absolutely dead. In my horror and consternation, I ran instinctively to the doors and bolted them—the doors of the lecture room and of the laboratory below. And then what was I to do?

It never occurred to me to go out and declare what I had done and obtain assistance. I saw nothing but the alternative of a successful removal and concealment of the body, on the one hand, and of infamy and destruction on the other. The first thing I did, as soon as I could do anything, was to drag the body into the private room adjoining. There I took off the clothes, and began to put them into the fire which was burning in the upper laboratory. They were all consumed there that afternoon, with papers, pocket-book, or whatever else they may have contained. I did not examine the pockets, nor remove anything except the watch. I saw that, or the chain of it, hanging out, and I took it and threw it over the bridge, as I went to Cambridge.

My next move was to get the body into the sink which stands in the small private room. By setting the body partially erect against the corner, and getting up into the sink myself, I succeeded in drawing it up. There it was entirely dismembered. It was quickly done, as a work of terrible and desperate necessity. The only instrument used was the knife found by the officers in the trunk, which I kept for cutting corks.—I made no use of the Turkish knife as it was called at the trial. That had long been kept on my parlor mantle piece in Cambridge as a curious ornament. My daughters frequently cleaned it—hence the marks of oil and whiting found on it. I had lately brought it into Boston to get the silver sheath repaired.

While dismembering the body, a stream of Cochituate was running through the sink, carrying off the blood in a pipe that passed down through the lower laboratory. There must have been a leak in the pipe, for the ceiling below was stained immediately round it.

There was a fire burning in the furnace of the lower laboratory. Littlefield was mistaken in thinking there had never been a fire there. He had probably never kindled one, but I had done it myself several times. I had done it that day for the purpose of making oxygen gas. The head and the viscera were put into that furnace that day, and the fuel heaped on. I did not examine at night to see to what degree they were consumed. Some of the extremities I believe were put in there on that day.

The pelvis and some of the limbs, perhaps all, were put under the lid of the lecture room table in what is called the *well*—a deep sink lined with lead. A stream of Cochituate was turned into it, and kept running through all Friday night. The thorax was put into a similar well in the lower laboratory, which I filled with water, and threw in a quantity of potash which I found there. This disposition of the remains was not changed till after the visit of the officers on Monday.

When the body had been thus all disposed of, I cleared away all traces of what had been done. I took up the stick with which the fatal blow had been struck. It proved to be a piece of the stump of a large grape vine, say two inches in diameter, and two feet long. It was one of two or more pieces which I had carried in from Cambridge, long before, for the purpose of showing the effect of certain chemical fluids in coloring wood, by being absorbed into the pores. The grape vine being a very porous wood, was well suited to this purpose. Another longer stick had been used as intended, and exhibited to the students. This one had not been used. I put it into the fire.

I took up the two notes, either from the table or the floor, I think the table, close by where Dr. P. had fallen. I seized an old metallic pen lying on the table, dashed it across the face and through the signatures, and put them in my pocket. I do not know why I did this rather than put them in the fire; for I had not considered for a moment what effect either would have on the mortgage or my indebtedness to Dr. Parkman and the other persons interested; and I had not yet given a single thought to the question as to what account I should give of the objects or results of my interview with Dr. Parkman.

I never saw the sledge hammer spoken of by Littlefield, and never knew of its existence at least I have no recollection of it.

I left the College to go home, as late as 6 o'clock. I collected myself as well as I could that I might meet my family and others with composure. On Saturday I visited my rooms at the College, but made no change in the disposition of the remains, and had no plans as to my future course.

On Saturday evening I read the notice in the Transcript respecting the disappearance. I was then deeply impressed with

(SEE FOURTH PAGE.)